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ABSTRACT

This document is a chapter in "The Principles and Practice of Educational Management," which aims to provide a systematic and analytical introduction to the study of educational management. The structure of the book reflects the main substantive areas of educational leadership and management, and most of the major themes are covered in the volume's 19 chapters, of which this is one. This chapter takes the premise that schools, colleges, and educational organizations of all types exist to provide an environment for learning and teaching and that their purpose is to enable these processes to provide maximum benefit to students. It focuses on the ways that schools and colleges manage the resources available to them to enhance student learning. It defines what is meant by resources and how organizational perspectives can influence resource management. Resource management can be described as a series of four processes: acquisition, allocation, utilization, and evaluation. The key points when assessing these processes involve opportunities and incentives, opportunity costs, decisions about resources within a set time period, putting a budget plan into operation, and then evaluating the efficiency, effectiveness, equity, value, and cost-effectiveness of the plan. When taken together, the effective manager must look at resource use and its implications within a long-term framework of strategic management and organizational development planning. With increasing autonomy at the school level, the need for education mangers to demonstrate their effectiveness in managing resources has become more significant. This heightened autonomy means that management resources at the institutional level are an integral aspect of the overall management of an organization. (Contains 36 references.) (RJM)

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Resource Acquisition and Allocation.

Lesley Anderson

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Resource Acquisition and Allocation

Lesley Anderson

Introduction

This chapter starts from the premise that schools, colleges and educational organisations of all types exist to provide an environment for learning and teaching to take place, and that their purpose is to enable these processes, interpreted in their broadest sense, to provide maximum benefit to pupils and students. It follows from the existence of any such educational organisation that resources have to be acquired or provided and then allocated as a pre-requisite to fulfilling this purpose. As elsewhere, resources in education are the means to the end and they are necessarily limited. This is true whatever the nature of the physical manifestation of the educational organisation, for example, conventionally as a school building or from a desktop providing resources for e-learning. On the basis of this fact, the question then arises as to whether the quantity and mix of resources matter in terms of the effectiveness of the educational organisation in achieving its purpose. Levačić (2000: 3) considers this question as the starting point in her discussion on 'linking resources to learning outcomes'. She highlights the problematic nature of the issue in terms of the lack of research evidence to support the popularly held belief that resources, particularly in terms of quantity, do make a difference. Whilst acknowledging this difficulty, this chapter is based on the assumption that to some extent, at least, resources do matter. They matter in terms of having an adequate supply to fulfil the educational function. They matter in terms of the way in which they are allocated internally because, unless they are available in abundance, the principles and assumptions upon which they are managed and deployed are important for the organisation as a whole (Simkins, 1997: 164). They matter in terms of school/college improvement (Thomas and Martin, 1996) and long-term effectiveness (Levine and Lezotte, 1990). Thus, the management of resources is a significant and important management function for any educational organisation.

The chapter, then, is concerned with the ways in which schools and colleges manage the resources available to them. It adopts the traditional view of schools and colleges as places where students go to learn. However, it is

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suggested that the theory and discussion presented here is generally applicable in educational environments that fall outside this conventional stereotype.

Before moving on to consider the various stages in the management of resources, it is necessary to define what we mean by resources and to consider the way in which organisational theory informs our understanding of the processes of resource management.

Defining resources

In the previous chapter, we saw that inputs – or resources – are key to Levačić's definition of school autonomy. They represent one domain in which decision-making power can be devolved to a school or college to enable more autonomy. So what are these inputs – or resources – whose management can be devolved to the organisational level? The key resource is obviously finance and, as such, financial management is distinctive from that of other resources. It is also evident that books, equipment and consumable items such as paper, art materials and chemicals are required for effective learning and teaching. These have been described as 'real' resources (Simkins, 1997: 163). Simkins lists teaching staff, support staff, materials, services and premises under this heading. In his discussion about changes in the level of resource management delegated to schools and colleges in the UK since 1989, he adds staff and pupil time as another, non-financial, resource. Levačić (2000: 11) takes it further and includes the extent of discretion over setting contracts with teachers, other staff and suppliers, and regulations with respect to space, class size and staffing establishment in her definition of resources.

Resources are significant to Caldwell and Spinks's (1988; 1992; 1998) concept of self-management. The definition they use in their third book on this topic emphasises the centrality of decisions on resources in self-management:

> A self-managing school is a school in a system of education to which there has been decentralised a significant amount of authority and responsibility to make decisions about the allocation of resources within a centrally determined framework of goals, policies, standards and accountabilities. Resources are defined broadly to include knowledge, technology, power, material, people, time, assessment, information and finance. (Caldwell and Spinks, 1998: 4–5)

In their discussions of the range of resource decisions that may have been delegated to school or college level, Bullock and Thomas (1997: 7–8) and Bell (1998) also include admissions and funding, and governance, respectively. Funding in Bullock and Thomas's terms is the setting of fees for the admission of pupils or students and, according to Bell, decisions about the power and composition of governing bodies may also be classified as a resource.

In other situations where schools have limited autonomy, educational managers – or teachers – have little control over the majority of the resources

listed. A lack of basic materials and high teacher/pupil ratios may mean that they have to be creative about the way in which they use the limited resources available to them. They would find it difficult to identify resources beyond consumables, basic teaching materials and themselves. For example, in 1999 the headteacher of a 120-pupil primary school in the rural district of Msinga, KwaZula Natal in South Africa, described to the author how she made use of the very limited resources available to her in the mud-hut school building. There were just three teachers, including herself, so she was a teaching head and there was literally no additional accommodation beyond the three small classrooms. As part of a science lesson, she dissolved coloured chalk in water to demonstrate solubility. The pupils then went on to used the coloured water in an art lesson and, finally, they used their paintings to create paper models in a technology lesson (Anderson, 1999).

The point here is that the term 'resources' can be interpreted in a variety of ways depending on context. For the purposes of this chapter, the term 'resources' is taken to include finance, materials, staffing and time. Although what follows is generally applicable to the management of the other categories of resources listed above, it is beyond the scope of this chapter to provide a detailed discussion of each.

Having established the use of the term 'resources' in this chapter, the next section moves on to consider organisational theory in order to provide a context for the various approaches to, and features of, resource management that are identifiable in schools and colleges.

Organisational perspectives and the implications for resource management

In the first section of this book the context of educational management is considered with a view to establishing theoretical and conceptual frameworks as a basis upon which key educational management functions can be explored in the remaining chapters. In Chapter 2, Tony Bush presents a number of models of educational management that draw on organisational theory and serve to explain events, situations and behaviour in educational institutions. This theory and these models, then, provide an appropriate backdrop for discussion of resource management in education.

Four models: rational, collegial, political and ambiguity, feature in the literature on financial management (Bush, 2000: 101). Levačić (2000: 7) also refers to these four models, although she groups the last three together as the human relations approach – or natural system. Additionally, after Scott (1987) and Scheerens (1999), she adds the open systems model to the list and asserts that it is consistent with the other four. From the open systems perspective, the organisation is depicted as a 'complex living organism which interacts with its environment' (Levačić, 1997: 127; see also, Hanna, 1997;

Morgan, 1986). While the organisation is distinct and separate from its external environment, its boundaries are not clearly defined and it interacts with the environment at a variety of levels. The relationship between them is premised on the fact that the inputs used by the organisation are derived from the external environment and the outputs that result from the organisation's activity are released back to it. Thus, the organisation is dependent upon its environment. Moreover, the open systems model also focuses on the way in which inputs and outputs are connected and controlled by the internal processes of the organisation. For example, the technology of the organisation's productive processes and the culture of its human relations affect the internal processes which relate inputs to outputs and the organisation and its external environment. As Levačić (1997: 128) highlights, 'appropriate feedback mechanisms between an organisation and its environment and within the system itself are required for the organisation to be responsive and adaptive'.

These different perspectives on educational management are important because they provide a framework within which resource management in any one organisation may be considered. In other words, the way in which the purpose of managing resources is conceived and how it is, or should be, undertaken can be explained in terms of the organisational perspective that is evident. For example, in schools and colleges where the collegial model dominates there will be an extensive committee system within which decisions about resource allocations are made (Bush, 1995: 55). Of course, in practice, it is likely that the approach used will involve aspects of more than one perspective, although frequently one approach dominates (Bush, 1995; 2000). What it is important to recognise is that the shift to self-management in education in many countries around the world has brought with it greater emphasis on resource management at school/college level. At the same time almost all official (government) pronouncements on resource management are made from a rational perspective (Simkins, 1997: 165) that frequently include value judgements about what 'should be'. Levačić (2000: 9) describes such judgements as 'normative'. She also points out that the rational approach with its tight coupling of inputs and outputs, alongside the lack of clear agreement about the outputs of education, provide some difficulties for schools and colleges. However, in the context of resource management, and after Scheerens (1999), she asserts that the normative issue of which perspective to favour can be resolved by regarding the rational perspective as predominant.

The processes of resource management

Like other aspects of management, it is possible to represent resource management as a set of processes. Levačić (2000: 11) identifies four such processes:

- acquisition
- allocation
- utilisation
- evaluation.

Although sequential, these processes are also interrelated in other ways. For example, to some extent, acquisition and allocation depend on plans for utilisation and should be based on feedback from evaluation. Thus, there are adjustments over time as a result of evaluation data. Simkins (1997: 167) extends the list by replacing evaluation with review and control, the latter being concerned with whether the activities undertaken and resources used correspond to those that have been planned or authorised. However, for the purposes of this chapter, resource management is modelled as a series of sequential processes that together form a cycle as in Figure 13.1.

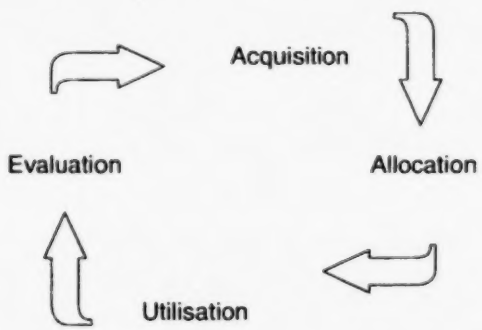

Figure 13.1: The resource management cycle

As in most organisations, schools and colleges are likely to have a number of annual resource management cycles. These include a financial budgeting cycle (Blandford, 1997) and a staffing/timetabling cycle, but there may be others. It is these operational cycles that frequently dominate the resource management process, mainly because they are inevitable in order to ensure the organisation achieves its core function of learning and teaching (Simkins, 1997: 167). However, schools and colleges are also exhorted to plan strategically. Thus, the operational cycle should be related to, and sit within, the strategic cycle which provides a longer-term policy framework for the management of resources. Issues relating resource management to strategic planning are considered at the end of this chapter. Before that, the four broad operational processes of resource management are considered.

Resource acquisition

In the case of maintained schools and colleges, finance and other resources are acquired, or allocated, from the government and/or sponsors. From the

previous chapter we know that there is considerable variation in the level of decision-making devolved to individual schools and colleges around the world. For example, under the system employed in England and Wales, and known as fair funding, funding is devolved to schools according to specific criteria. School governing bodies then have responsibility for a wide range of resource decisions, including determining the number of staff employed at their school and the level of these appointments. However, in China there are significant differences in the sources of funding for schools and in where, and how, resource decisions are made. In the case of staffing, all schools are allocated staff by the local authority although some schools may also employ extra staff, or pay more to existing people, by using income generated at the school (Ryan et al., 1998: 180).

Opportunities and incentives

The extent to which school managers have the freedom or the opportunity to acquire 'additional' resources depends on the nature of the school or college, the context in which it is operating and, to some extent, the personality and style of leadership exhibited. For example, those working in the unregulated private education sector generally have the freedom to set the level of fees charged although it is likely that such a school or college operates within a marketplace and, therefore, seeks to fix a fee level that enables it to survive. Schools and colleges maintained by government and/or other sponsors may be subject to legislation and/or affected by the social context in which they operate in seeking opportunities to generate additional resources to those already allocated to them. For example, in South Africa, maintained schools are required to set an annual fee in consultation with parents. For some schools this income enables them to employ additional teachers over and above those funded through government allocation.

In most countries, maintained or state schools and colleges are subordinate to a local or regional structure with resources channelled from central government through an intermediate tier to them. In situations where resources are allocated according to a transparent formula, school managers have the opportunity to increase their resource allocation by reference to the formula and, with careful management, may secure benefit to the school over and above the straightforward formula funded allocation. For example, English and Welsh schools are funded according to a formula that is significantly weighted towards pupil enrolments. While it is evident that attracting more pupils increases both income and costs, within certain limits, these costs may be absorbed. This is because increasing the number of pupils on roll in any one grouping does not necessarily imply the appointment of an additional member of staff nor the need for more space or materials (except consumables) for learning and teaching. Thus, it may be in the interests of the school or college to increase pupil/student enrolments within certain limits.

In situations where aspects of resource allocation to schools and colleges are not transparent, school or college managers may attempt to acquire additional resources through favour and influence at the local level, for example, by nurturing relationships with individuals deemed influential. Interestingly, this political approach was applied by some headteachers and chairs of governors of grant-maintained (GM) schools at national level in England and Wales during the period of Conservative governments in the early to mid-1990s. Unlike other English and Welsh maintained schools, the funding of GM schools was administered centrally, including an annual allocation for major capital development for which the schools had to bid. Within the sector, it was known that some senior managers and/or governors considered it in the interest of their school to lobby at the highest levels in an attempt to ensure the success of their school's application (Sherratt, 1994: 76).

Some schools and colleges may also be able, or required, to generate income and resources through their own efforts. Such entrepreneurial activities can range from low-level fund-raising through sales and other events in the school or college to the appointment of a business manager whose role it is to generate income, often including his/her own salary. This move towards entrepreneurialism in education is generally associated with the shift to self-management (see Anderson, 2000: 41–58 for a more detailed discussion). In respect of a specific appointment for income generation, Bush (1995: 148) points out that factors of size are relevant. Schools and colleges that have substantial income, probably as a factor of their size in terms of student numbers, may well be in a position to allocate a small proportion of their income to funding a post that is primarily concerned with income generation.

Opportunity costs

In all situations, the decision to commit resources to one line of action brings with it certain 'costs' in terms of the other ways that those resources could have been employed. These are known as opportunity costs. Thus, there are opportunity costs in terms of how else staff could have used their time when it is prioritised for resource acquisition. Indeed, it can be argued that there are opportunity costs in a school or college opting for a particular level of self-management and its associated 'freedoms'. For example, the opportunity costs in gaining freedom to establish their own admissions criteria or aspects of the curriculum can be measured in terms of the related activities that they bring, such as staff and governor time used dealing with admissions appeals and curriculum design. Thus, managers need to balance the benefits gained from deploying staff in various forms of resource acquisition with the other ways in which they could have used their time, for example, on activities more directly related to the core task of teaching.

Resource allocation

The allocation of resources stage of the management cycle involves decisions about how both financial and real resources are deployed within a set time period, usually one year. It is self-evident that, in order to achieve the core purpose of the organisation, financial resources need to be transferred into other forms of resource or into 'real' resources. This process begins with budget-setting. Most of us are familiar with the concept of a budget as an annual estimate of revenue and expenditure of an organisation. The task of setting the budget involves drawing together a range of information about the likely outturns from the present budget period as well as requirements and expectations about the next one. McAleese (2000) describes the various factors that influence and effect setting the annual budget in a secondary school in England. There is a problem in that 'the budget process is a dynamic one with competing forces vying for funds' (Davies, 1994: 329). This, of course, is true for any organisation and a rational approach to resource management requires managers to set a budget that is designed to maximise the organisation's outputs. However, budget-setting in educational establishments often does not include consideration about the way in which specific learning outcomes will be achieved through the deployment of particular resources (Levačić, 2000: 12). In other words, applying a concept developed by Weick (1976), it can be said that decisions at school or college level about financial allocations and those about the real resources obtained with this funding, usually made at departmental level, are not tightly coupled.

The nature of learning and teaching and the way in which it is usually provided means that staff allocation features as the biggest budget heading for educational organisations. In making this allocation, school and college managers and governors may have to make a number of crucial decisions depending on the level of autonomy devolved to them. These include not only the number of qualified teachers and support staff, but also the level at which any post will be offered. The length and utilisation of the working week and the way in which teaching is organised are also relevant. Simkins (1997: 168) describes the timetabling process as 'perhaps the quintessential component of operational resource management in a school'. In the UK, as elsewhere, issues about the length of the school week and class size have been the subject of recent study (Blatchford and Martin, 1998; Goldstein and Blatchford, 1998) and debate but remain controversial. Thus, the lack of tight coupling between staffing allocations and learning outcomes is not a straightforward matter to address.

Similarly, decisions about the deployment of resources to support the curriculum are important but not easy to link precisely to educational outcomes. Various ways to allocate resources within a school or college are described in the literature (see, for example, Blandford, 1997; Knight, 1993;

Simkins, 1986). Generally, the methods employed relate to the organisational perspectives adopted.

Resource utilisation

This stage of the resource management cycle is concerned with putting the budget plan into operation. It involves activities such as staffing, timetabling, ordering supplies, maintenance and development of the premises and so on. The actual activities associated with generating additional income also fall within this stage. Alongside these tasks, the utilisation of resources brings with it the need for managers to monitor the budget regularly throughout the year in order to compare actual income and expenditure under the various budget headings with those intended. If necessary, decisions and adjustments have to be made and better financial controls imposed on internal budget holders in order to curtail or stimulate spending.

It follows that the use or deployment of any resources brings with it associated costs that need to be, or should be, managed within the resource management cycle. This involves addressing a series of questions, such as 'Can we afford it?', 'Which method is better?', 'Is it worth it?', 'How can costs be managed?', 'What should we charge for it?'. Simkins (2000) discusses each of these questions and provides a useful overview of cost analysis. However, he also points out that, despite a number of good reasons why it is important, cost analysis is still relatively underutilised (see Simkins, 2000: 168). He argues that this situation is likely to change over the next few years, and lists three main reasons:

- the ongoing move to delegated responsibility for resource management and increased emphasis on accountability
- the need to identify alternative educational strategies as part of the global drive to improve educational standards
- governments' concerns to address issues of equity.

All these policy initiatives are set within a context of value for money. For example, Thomas and Martin (1996: 36) advocate what they describe as a 'radical audit' as part of its strategy towards improvement. As a result of such an audit the school or college may consider different ways of working as well as more diversity and creativity in the use of resources. Thus, 'the case for assessing their costs and benefits is more obvious . . . This has implications for good information on costs, recognition of forgone alternatives as well as anticipated benefits' (ibid.: 36).

Evaluating the use of resources

The fourth and final process in the management of resources is the evaluation of the past use of resources with a view to informing future decision-making.

At this point, it is important to remind the reader that the concern is for quality of outputs in terms of learning outcomes rather than the maximisation of profit as in the case of most commercial organisations. In considering the evaluation process, it is necessary to understand and take into account a number of resource management concepts.

Efficiency

Efficiency refers to the relationship between the output and the cost of the inputs used to achieve that output. This can be achieved in two ways. An efficient use of resources is one that produces a given quantity of value of output at the least cost (Levačić, 2000: 13) or when the maximum amount of output is produced for a given cost (Wyndham and Chapman, 1990: ch. 7). Levačić (2000: 14) goes on to explain that the most efficient use of resources depends not only on the prices of the various inputs but also on the 'technical' relationship between the combination of inputs and the desired outputs. In the case of education, the latter is usually taken to mean learning outcomes. For example, in order for every child in a group to achieve a certain standard, different combinations of fully qualified teachers, classroom assistants and an integrated learning computer system could be applied. The most efficient method would be the one that produced the greatest progress towards achieving the overall aim for a set sum of money. However, as Levačić (2000: 14) points out, efficiency is a normative concept. Value judgements are made when a school's efficiency is assessed.

Effectiveness

The concept of effectiveness is about matching results with objectives and is usually taken to mean the extent to which intended outcomes are achieved. This interpretation is derived from the rational perspective of organisational theory as discussed above and in Chapter 2. In the context of other organisational perspectives, or a mixture of perspectives, the concept of effectiveness may be different. The important point here is that the evaluation of effectiveness is dependent on the objectives set or, indeed, the evaluator's perception of them.

Equity

This concept is concerned with fairness in terms of allocating resources according to individual needs. Swanson and King (1997: 323) highlight the importance of ensuring equity on a subjective and individual basis in their definition in relation to education. In their view, equity is the distribution of expenditure 'in such a way that each child can access an education appropriate to his/her individual learning potential and needs'.

These three 'e's then, provide the building blocks for the evaluation of the use of resources to produce learning outcomes. However, there are some difficulties with the concept of efficiency in education because of its normative nature and the lack of agreement about desired educational outcomes. Further concepts are, therefore, defined and used alternatively in the literature.

Value for money

Value for money is achieved when the production process is both efficient and effective (Audit Commission, 1984). This requirement is necessary in education because achieving one without the other is unhelpful. It is neither useful to produce educational outcomes that are of little value to society efficiently nor to achieve desirable outcomes effectively if the process is inefficient.

In England and Wales, the requirement of school inspectors to make judgements about value for money gives it some significance as a means of evaluating resource management. However, from their examination of 66 secondary school inspection reports, Levačić and Glover (1994) concluded:

> The concept and criteria for the judgement of value for money appear . . . to be lacking precision and are subject to variable usage. In the main it appears to be a judgement about educational outputs, given the environmental context, relative to unit cost. However, in some cases the inspectors' assessment of efficiency in relation to management processes appears to be the dominant criterion. The lack of sufficiently clear guidance on the application of the value for money criteria leads to inconsistencies in the summative comments and, in these early inspections, to avoidance of making value for money judgements at all. (Ibid.: 25)

Since January 2000, Ofsted has included the inspection of best value in its inspection framework. As well as the requirement to provide economic, efficient and effective education services, best value includes the criterion to work to clear standards. Applied to schools in England and Wales, it has four principles:

- compare – how a school's performance compares with that of other schools
- challenge – whether the school's performance is high enough, and why and how a service is being provided
- complete – how the school secures economic, efficient and effective services
- consult – seeking the views of stakeholders about the services provided (Audit Commission/Ofsted, 2000: 3).

Cost-effectiveness

Another term that is used often in the literature is cost-effectiveness. In the context of schools, Thomas and Martin (1996: 22) describe it as 'among the

more abused words from the lexicon of economics'. They point out that, along with efficiency, it is frequently used as a code for 'cheapness' which is, in fact, a contraction to its economic meaning in that cost-effectiveness analysis can provide a means of enhancing quality. For, according to these writers, 'properly applied, cost effectiveness analysis in schools is concerned with the relationship between the learning of children and the human and physical resources which contribute to that learning' (ibid.: 22). It is 'concerned with comparing different ways of achieving the same objective and the most cost-effective choice will be the least costly of the alternatives being compared' (ibid.: 23). They relate it to efficiency but without applying the rigorous economic conditions of efficiency.

The purpose of their research, however, was to identify the general organisational characteristics associated with schools that are effective in their use of resources in relation to their educational purposes. Emphasising that they are in addition to the attributes common to the wealth of literature on school effectiveness, Thomas and Martin summarise these characteristics as follows:

- Periodically undertake a radical audit, particularly in the use of staff.
- Improve information on costs.
- Use the expertise of relevant staff on resource priorities through some internal delegation of decision-making on resources.
- Limit the dangers of complacency about standards and quality by ensuring that the structure of decision making provides for a dialogue of accountability of high quality.
- Reduce the detachment of management by using team meetings, appraisal and surveys to collect information on the quality of teaching and learning from teachers, parents and pupils.
- Develop sources of information which are independent of headteachers and teachers (Thomas and Martin, 1996: 42–3).

Thus, the evaluation of the past use of resources completes the operational stages of this management cycle and provides appropriate data for purposes of accountability. Like all other aspects of management, in practice the stages of this cycle are not enacted discretely. It is likely that managers will be simultaneously concerned with all aspects of the cycle to some extent.

Resource management and strategic planning

The premise of this chapter is that educational organisations are concerned with managing their resources in order to enhance the learning and teaching of their pupils and students, and this is usually approached from a rational perspective. Thus, schools and colleges are not only concerned with annual budgeting that is informed by educational objectives but, to the extent that

they are able to plan strategically, the effective manager also has regard to resource use and implications within a longer-term framework of strategic management and organisational development planning. This theme runs through the chapter. It is particularly evident in Thomas and Martin's list of attributes of resource management in the cost-effective school above. The point is also made clearly by the National Audit Office (1997) who argue the importance of strategic planning by all schools and colleges. They point out that 'longer-term decisions will be needed regardless of whether there is a strategic plan, and it is better that these are taken in the context of a plan . . . than in isolation' (ibid.: 95). Among the benefits of strategic planning they include:

- The financial implications of these plans can be identified, options assessed, and resources directed appropriately.
- The resultant plan forms a framework for financial decision-making during the year.
- The plan allocates prioritised tasks across the school and sets clear criteria for the evaluation of achievement at the end of the year (ibid.: 195).

Thus, the strategic plan provides the basis for budgetary decisions that lead to appropriate resources being available at the right time in order to achieve educational purposes. In turn, resource management provides a vital link between strategy and quality (Preedy et al., 1997: 5).

Conclusion

The management of resources at the level of the institution is an integral aspect of the overall management of the organisation. Indeed, with the shift towards school and college autonomy, together with an emphasis on their accountability, the need for educational managers to demonstrate their effectiveness in the management of resources for the purpose of learning and teaching has become much more significant. This is evident in the need to manage resources strategically as well as at an operational level.

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